
Puzzles: Unbounded Video-Depth Augmentation for Scalable End-to-End 3D Reconstruction

Jiahao Ma^{1,3}, Lei Wang^{2,3}, Miaomiao Liu¹, David Ahmedt-Aristizabal³, Chuong Nguyen^{1,3}

¹Australian National University, ²Griffith University, ³Data61/CSIRO
{jiahao.ma, miaomiao.liu}@anu.edu.au, l.wang4@griffith.edu.au
{david.ahmedtaristizabal, chuong.nguyen}@data61.csiro.au

Abstract

Multi-view 3D reconstruction remains a core challenge in computer vision. Recent methods, such as DUS3R and its successors, directly regress pointmaps from image pairs without relying on known scene geometry or camera parameters. However, the performance of these models is constrained by the diversity and scale of available training data. In this work, we introduce **Puzzles**, a data augmentation strategy that synthesizes an unbounded volume of high-quality, posed video-depth data from just a single image or video clip. By simulating diverse camera trajectories and realistic scene geometry through targeted image transformations, Puzzles enhances data variety. Extensive experiments show that integrating Puzzles into existing video-based 3D reconstruction pipelines consistently boosts performance, all without modifying the underlying network architecture. Notably, models trained on only 10% of the original data, augmented with Puzzles, still achieve accuracy comparable to those trained on the full dataset. [\[Project website\]](#) [\[Code\]](#)

1 Introduction

Dense 3D reconstruction is a fundamental problem in computer vision, aimed at recovering detailed scene geometry from images or videos. Traditional approaches, based on Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) [1–3], Structure-from-Motion (SfM) [4], and Multi-View Stereo (MVS) [5–7], typically follow a multi-stage pipeline involving camera pose estimation, correspondence matching, and dense depth inference. While effective in controlled environments, these methods often struggle with scalability, computational efficiency, and robustness to viewpoint changes, limiting their applicability in large-scale, real-world scenarios.

Recent advances in learning-based two-view geometry address some limitations of monocular dense SLAM. DUS3R [8], for instance, introduced an end-to-end pipeline that directly regresses pointmaps from image pairs. However, it requires costly global alignment for multi-view reconstruction. Follow-up methods have improved on efficiency and scalability: Spann3R [9] replaces optimization-based alignment with incremental pointmap fusion in a shared coordinate frame using spatial memory; SLAM3R [10] reconstructs local geometry within a sliding window and integrates it incrementally into a global map; Fast3R [11] scales further, processing thousands of frames per forward pass without the need for alignment. Despite their advances, the 3R-series methods depend heavily on large volumes of high-quality posed video clips with ground-truth depth. Unfortunately, such datasets [12–14] remain limited in diversity and scale, ultimately constraining model generalization.

To address these challenges, we introduce **Puzzles**, a data augmentation framework for 3D reconstruction that increases data diversity while reducing dependency on large-scale video datasets. Rather than relying on redundant video frames (Figure 1.A), Puzzles extracts and amplifies the geometric and photometric cues already presented in a single image (Figure 1.B.1). Inspired by the making of jigsaw-puzzle, Puzzles partitions an image into an *ordered, overlapping* sequence of patches. The

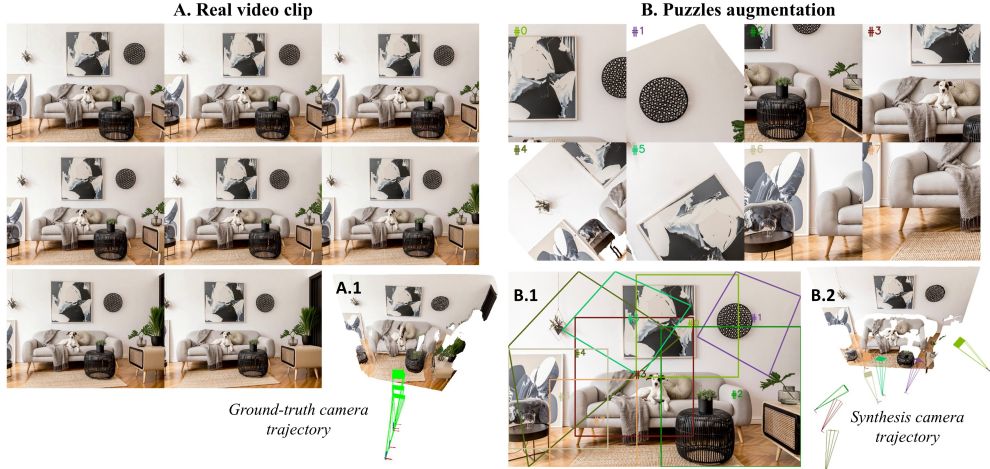


Figure 1: **Puzzles**: A new data augmentation framework for training feedforward 3D reconstruction deep models. **A**. Existing video-based 3D reconstruction datasets often contain redundant frames due to fixed camera trajectories after recording (A.1). **B**. **Puzzles** increases view diversity by generating novel viewpoints from a single image (B.1) and simulates realistic camera trajectories (B.2) to support 3D reconstruction training.

ordering encodes pseudo-temporal structure, while overlapping regions ensures spatial consistency, together simulating the geometric characteristics of real video sequences. As illustrated in Figure 1.B.2, these patches are further augmented to simulate realistic camera rotations and translations, producing diverse, video-like clips with synthetic depth and pose. We refer to this process as *Image-to-Clips*.

While *Image-to-Clips* enables fine-grained local reconstruction, a single image does not provide sufficient spatial coverage for large-scale scenes. To overcome this limitation, we propose *Clips-to-Clips*, an extension that operates on video clips by selecting strategic keyframes to generate multiple diverse sub-clips. This balances spatial coverage with augmentation diversity and mitigates the continuity issues caused by random frame sampling in prior works [9, 10].

Extensive experiments show that integrating **Puzzles** into existing video-based 3D-series pipelines consistently improves reconstruction quality under the same training data budget. Remarkably, models trained on just 10% of the dataset, when augmented with **Puzzles**, match or exceed the performance of models trained on the full dataset. Notably, **Puzzles** requires no changes to network architectures, making it a drop-in, plug-and-play solution. Our **contributions** are:

- i. We propose **Puzzles**, comprising *Image-to-Clips* and *Clips-to-Clips*, which generates realistic and diverse video-like clips with estimated depth and pose from single images or video clips via ordered, overlapping patch-based augmentation.
- ii. We show that integrating **Puzzles** into video-based 3D-series pipelines consistently improves performance, even under reduced data budget, with models trained on just 10% of the data achieving comparable or better results than full-data baselines.
- iii. **Puzzles** is a plug-and-play augmentation method that can be applied to any learning-based dense 3D reconstruction pipeline, without modifications to the underlying architecture.

2 Related Works

End-to-end dense 3D reconstruction. DUST3R [8] presents the first fully end-to-end framework for dense 3D reconstruction without requiring explicit camera calibration. Building on this, subsequent works have adapted the same paradigm to tasks, *e.g.*, single-view reconstruction [15], feature matching [16], novel-view synthesis [17–19], camera pose estimation [20], and dynamic scene reconstruction [21–25], highlighting the general utility of dense point prediction. However, extending DUST3R to video reconstruction remains both computationally expensive and error-prone. To address this, Spann3R [9] processes frames sequentially using a sliding window and external memory, while

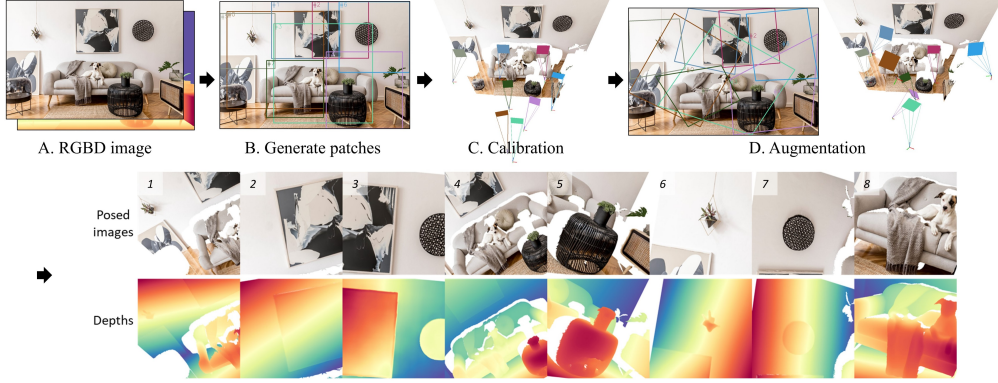


Figure 2: **Puzzles: Image-to-Clips.** (A) Starting from a single RGB-D image, we (B) partition it into ordered, overlapping patches, (C) simulate diverse viewpoints by calibrating virtual camera poses, and (D) generate augmented, posed images with aligned depth maps for use in 3D reconstruction.

Slam3R [10] incrementally registers overlapping clips. Fast3R [11] further improves scalability by reconstructing hundreds of unordered views in a single forward pass. Despite architectural advances, these 3R-series works [8, 16, 26, 9–11, 27, 28] require vast amounts of posed video depth data or image pairs extracted from resources that we found still limited in both diversity and quantity. Unlike prior work focused solely on model design, we adopt a data-centric strategy: augmenting real data to synthesize rich, varied training samples that substantially improve model performance.

Data augmentation for deep learning. Data augmentation is essential in deep learning, particularly when labeled data is scarce. Accordingly, it has been widely adopted across numerous computer vision tasks. In image classification, methods such as image erasing [29–31] typically remove sub-regions to improve invariance, while image mixing techniques [32–35] blend multiple images or patches into one. For object detection, region-level transformations coupled with bounding-box adjustments [36] improve localization accuracy. In segmentation, ClassMix [37] synthesizes new examples by exchanging class-specific regions across unlabeled images. For visual tracking, MASA [38] and BIV [39] simulate pseudo frame pairs by augmenting static images to emulate motion. Despite these advances, data augmentation for dense 3D reconstruction remains underexplored. To address this gap, we introduce Puzzles, a method that synthesizes full video sequences with corresponding camera poses and depth maps from a single image or short clip. Unlike prior methods [38–40] that focus on generating frame pairs, Puzzles create temporally coherent video streams that offer rich 2D viewpoint variation while preserving geometric consistency in 3D.

3 Method

Given a monocular video consisting of a sequence of RGB frames $\{I^n \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}\}_{n=1}^N$ capturing a static scene, the goal is to reconstruct a dense pointmap $\{X^n \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W \times 3}\}_{n=1}^N$, where each X^n is represented in the coordinate system of the initial frame. Our focus is on improving reconstruction quality through data augmentation, without modifying the network architecture or training objectives, to isolate the effect of the augmentation itself. To this end, we propose two strategies for augmenting input video sequences: (i) *Image-to-Clips* (Section 3.1): synthesizes video clips with simulated geometry and camera motion from a single image. (ii) *Clips-to-Clips* (Section 3.2): extends augmentation to entire videos by generating diverse sub-clips that improve spatial coverage.

3.1 Image-to-Clips

A key property of video is the spatial overlap between consecutive frames, which induces multi-view consistency, a crucial element in 3D reconstruction. We use this principle to synthesize pseudo-video sequences from a single RGB-D image. Below, we detail the Image-to-Clips method (see Figure 2).

Patch generation. To simulate video-like continuity, we extract an ordered set of overlapping patches from a single RGB-D frame. As shown in Figure 2.B (“Generate patches”), each patch overlaps with at least one previous frame, mimicking temporal coherence. All generated patches share identical

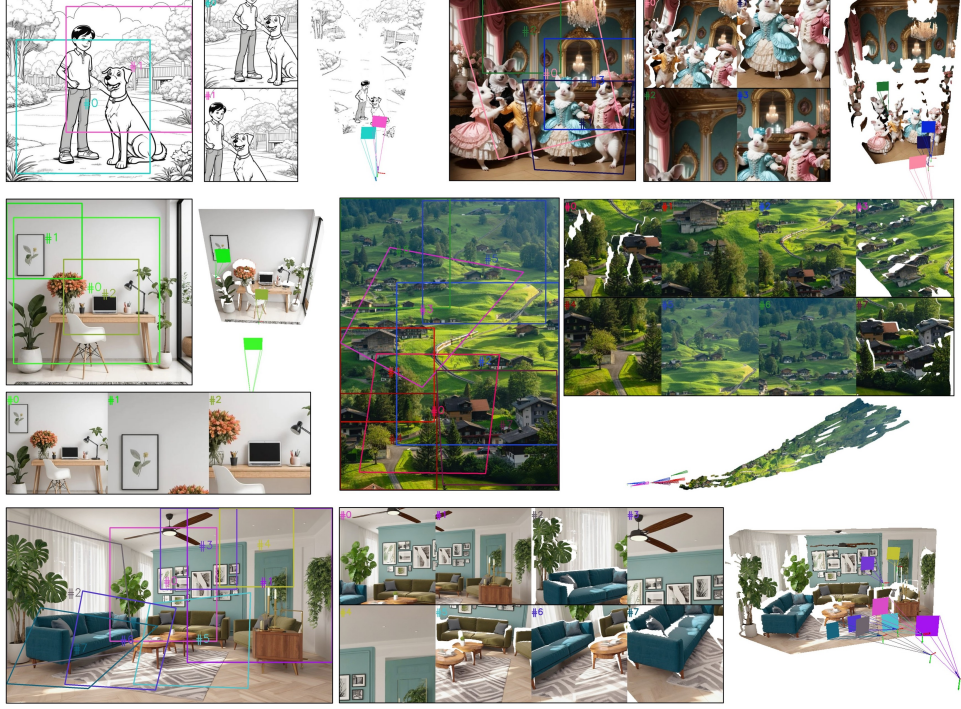


Figure 3: **Example of Image-to-Clips.** Given a single input image (left of each block), the proposed Image-to-Clips method samples ordered, overlapping patches (colored boxes) and assigns simulated 6-DoF camera trajectories (frustums) to generate view-consistent video clips. Examples across human-centric illustrations, indoor environments, and outdoor landscapes demonstrate the method’s ability to synthesize diverse and realistic training sequences from a single frame.

resolution. Patch size determines the field of view: smaller patches mimic close-up views rich in local detail, while larger ones simulate wide-angle views, replicating zoom-in/out effects. We control overlap using bounding box IoU and dynamically vary the overlap ratio, starting high to promote consistency, then decreasing it to increase diversity and training difficulty. Whether ground-truth or predicted depth is used, we observe similar benefits (Figure 2.A uses predicted depth).

Patch calibration. We estimate the camera intrinsics and extrinsics for each patch, allowing for consistent geometry and downstream use. There are two calibration strategies. 1. *Varying intrinsics, fixed extrinsics*: modify the full-image intrinsics per patch for fast rendering, but cannot simulate camera motion. 2. *Fixed intrinsics, varying extrinsics*: use a constant intrinsics to emulate camera motion (Figure 3), although extrinsic estimation incurs errors. We employ a hybrid of the two approaches, with the second method being applied more frequently during training. Details follow.

Varying intrinsics, fixed extrinsics. In this case, $\mathbf{T}_{w2c}^m = [I_3 \mid \mathbf{0}]$. Let the full-image intrinsics be $\mathbf{K}_{\text{full}} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$, and the depth map be $D \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times W}$. We define the corresponding 3D point map as:

$$X_{u,v} = \mathbf{K}_{\text{full}}^{-1} [uD_{u,v}, vD_{u,v}, D_{u,v}]^\top, \quad (1)$$

where $(u, v) \in \{1, \dots, W\} \times \{1, \dots, H\}$ are pixel coordinates.

From each image, we extract $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ rectangular patches $\{B^m\}_{m=1}^M$, where $B^m = [u_1^m, v_1^m, u_2^m, v_2^m]^\top$ are the pixel coordinates of the top-left and bottom-right corners of the m -th patch. Each patch is resized to a fixed resolution $W' \times H'$. The intrinsics of each patch $\mathbf{K}_{\text{patch}}^m$ are derived from $\mathbf{K}_{\text{full}}$ via scaling:

$$\mathbf{K}_{\text{patch}}^m = \begin{pmatrix} f_x s_x^m & 0 & (c_x - u_1^m) s_x^m \\ 0 & f_y s_y^m & (c_y - v_1^m) s_y^m \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad s_x^m = \frac{W'}{u_2^m - u_1^m}, \quad s_y^m = \frac{H'}{v_2^m - v_1^m}. \quad (2)$$

Fixed intrinsics, varying extrinsics. Let consistent intrinsics per patch: $K_{\text{patch}}^m = \begin{pmatrix} f_x & 0 & W'/2 \\ 0 & f_y & H'/2 \end{pmatrix}$, to recover the extrinsic parameters $\mathbf{T}_{\text{w2c}}^m = [\mathbf{R}^m \mid \mathbf{t}^m]$ for each patch m , we first crop the dense point map to obtain a patch-specific 3D point set $X^m \in \mathbb{R}^{H' \times W' \times 3}$. We then estimate the camera pose by solving a Perspective-n-Point (PnP) problem using RANSAC [41, 42], which provides robustness to outliers. We define a set of 3D-2D correspondences $\{(X_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, where $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a 3D point in world coordinates (from the depth map), and $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is its corresponding 2D location in the image patch. To estimate the rotation $\mathbf{R}^m \in \text{SO}(3)$ and translation $\mathbf{t}^m \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we minimize the total reprojection error over a set of inliers $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \dots, N\}$.

This is formulated as:

$$\mathbf{R}^m, \mathbf{t}^m = \arg \min_{\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{t}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \pi(\mathbf{K}_{\text{patch}}^m \cdot (\mathbf{R}X_i + \mathbf{t}))\|^2. \quad (3)$$

The projection function $\pi : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is defined as: $\pi([X, Y, Z]^\top) = (\frac{X}{Z}, \frac{Y}{Z})^\top$. This process yields the optimal camera-to-world transformation for each patch, enabling accurate alignment between 2D image observations and 3D geometry.

Camera motion augmentation. After recovering geometric and camera parameters for each patch, we obtain all the necessary information to support standard 3D reconstruction and pose estimation tasks. However, this setup has a key limitation: simply cropping image patches mostly simulates translational motion, such as lateral or forward shifts, without introducing any realistic rotational dynamics (see Figure 2.C). Experimental results in supplementary materials show that combining both rotational and translational motion improves performance.

Centroid-based camera rotation. To simulate more realistic and diverse camera motion, we apply a controlled random rotation around the centroid of the 3D point cloud within each patch. Let the original camera-to-world pose be $\mathbf{T}_{\text{c2w}}^m = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}^{m\top} & -\mathbf{R}^{m\top}\mathbf{t}^m \\ \mathbf{0}^\top & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and define the centroid of the 3D points as $\mathbf{c}_p = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{X}_i$. We sample a random rotation angle from a mixture of a uniform distribution Gaussian noise, $\theta \sim \mathcal{U}(\theta_{\min}, \theta_{\max}) + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, and a random unit axis, $\mathbf{n} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$, normalized such that $\|\mathbf{n}\| = 1$. Using Rodrigues' formula [43], we construct the corresponding rotation matrix $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{n}, \theta} \in \text{SO}(3)$ as:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{n}, \theta} = \cos \theta I + \sin \theta [\mathbf{n}]_\times + (1 - \cos \theta) \mathbf{n} \mathbf{n}^\top, \quad (4)$$

where $[\mathbf{n}]_\times$ is the skew-symmetric matrix of $\mathbf{n}$. The resulting 4×4 homogeneous transformation about the centroid $\mathbf{c}_p$ is:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\text{rot}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{n}, \theta} & \mathbf{c}_p - \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{n}, \theta} \mathbf{c}_p \\ \mathbf{0}^\top & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

We update the camera pose by applying this rotation, and compute the new world-to-camera extrinsic matrix as:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\text{w2c}}'^m = (\mathbf{T}_{\text{rot}} \cdot \mathbf{T}_{\text{c2w}}^m)^{-1}. \quad (6)$$

This augmentation introduces realistic viewpoint variation while maintaining the scene focus, enabling free-viewpoint rotation beyond what patch cropping can achieve, as shown in Figure 2.

Valid view checks. Random rotation can result in invalid camera views that negatively impact training. We therefore apply two geometric validation tests to ensure the quality of the rotated view: *front-surface coverage test* and *view-frustum inclusion test*.

- i. *Front-surface coverage test.* This test evaluates whether the camera observes a sufficient amount of front-facing geometry. For each 3D point with position $\mathbf{p}_i$ and outward-facing unit normal $\mathbf{n}_i$, we compute the dot product between the normal and the viewing direction from the camera center, given by $\mathbf{c}_c = -\mathbf{R}'^m \mathbf{t}^m$. The front-surface coverage score is defined as:

$$\text{FrontCov} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\left(\mathbf{n}_i^\top \frac{(\mathbf{c}_c - \mathbf{p}_i)}{\|\mathbf{c}_c - \mathbf{p}_i\|_2} > \cos \theta_{\text{valid}}\right), \quad (7)$$

where θ_{valid} is a predefined angular threshold, $\mathbf{1}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function, N is the number of 3D points, $\mathbf{p}_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the 3D position of point i , and $\mathbf{n}_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the corresponding unit normal

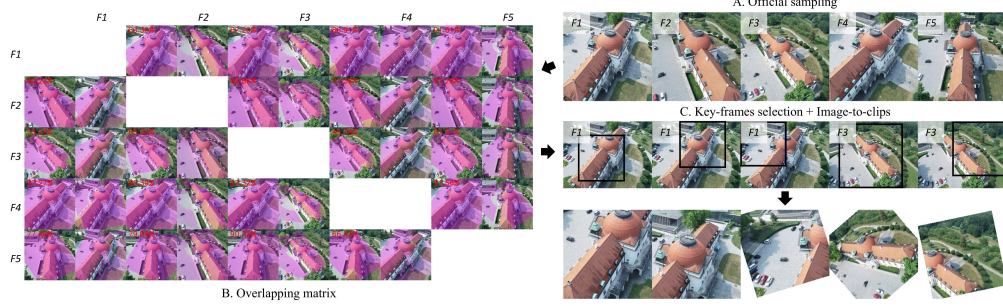


Figure 4: **Puzzles: Clips-to-Clips.** (A) We begin by uniformly sampling frames from a video. (B) A pair-wise overlap matrix is computed to measure frame redundancy, with overlap visualized in purple and overlap ratios annotated in red. (C) Low-redundancy keyframes are then selected, and diverse sub-clips are synthesized from them using the Image-to-Clips method.

vector. The metric $\text{FrontCov} \in [0, 1]$ quantifies the fraction of points that are front-facing with respect to the camera. A score of $\text{FrontCov} = 1$ indicates all points are front-facing, while $\text{FrontCov} = 0$ implies that none of the points face the camera.

- ii. *View-frustum coverage test.* This test ensures that the projected 3D points lie within the visible image frame. Each 3D point $\mathbf{p}_i$ is projected into the image plane using the updated camera extrinsics and the patch-specific intrinsic matrix $\mathbf{K}_{\text{patch}}^m$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathbf{K}_{\text{patch}}^m (\mathbf{R}'^m \mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{t}'^m), \quad g_i = \mathbf{1}(0 \leq u_i < W', 0 \leq v_i < H', D_{u_i, v_i} > 0), \quad (8)$$

where g_i is a binary indicator that equals 1 if the projected point falls within the image bounds and has a positive depth value. We define the image coverage score as: $\text{ImgCov} = \frac{1}{H'W'} \sum_i g_i$, which measures the fraction of the projected points that are valid and visible in the image.

During augmentation, we generate a finite set of candidate camera poses and select the one that maximizes both FrontCov and ImgCov . Finally, we render the point clouds using Open3D [44] with the augmented camera parameters to generate high-quality, posed video-depth sequences (see bottom row of Figure 2). If camera rotation reveals occluded areas, we fill them with white; if too many occlusions occur, we discard that patch’s rotation. The main text focuses on camera motion augmentation, while additional 2D augmentations are detailed in the supplementary material.

3.2 Clips-to-Clips

To extend coverage beyond individual images, we generalize our augmentation strategy from Image-to-Clips to Clips-to-Clips. Video clips often exhibit significant redundancy (see Figure 1.A), and prior methods [9, 10] typically sample frames at fixed or random intervals, overlooking the spatial relationships between them (details in supplementary material). This can result in pointmaps with little or no overlap between views, leading to geometrically inconsistent clips that hinder training and reduce accuracy. Our goal is to select key frames that both preserve scene continuity and provide sufficient visual coverage. We then apply the Image-to-Clips augmentation on these selected frames.

Overlapping matrix. Given the camera parameters and depth maps, we compute geometric overlap between video frames using an overlapping matrix $O \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, where N is the total number of frames. Each element $O_{ij} \in [0, 1]$ quantifies the fraction of overlapping geometry between frames i and j . A value of $O_{ij} = 0$ means no overlap, while $O_{ij} = 1$ indicates full overlap. As shown in Figure 4.B, this matrix provides a principled basis for selecting a minimal yet representative set of key frames that maximize coverage while minimizing redundancy. To compute O_{ij} , we treat each frame v^s as a source view and project its pixels into a reference view v^r . Let $\mathbf{x}^s$ be the homogeneous coordinates of a pixel in the source frame, and $D^s(\mathbf{x})$ its depth. We compute the reprojected coordinates $\mathbf{x}^{s \rightarrow r}$ and the corresponding depth $\mathbf{x}^s$ in the reference frame. We then compute the reprojected depth with the reference depth map $D^{s \rightarrow r}$ at the same pixel location. The

overlap score is defined as:

$$O_{ij} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{V}_x|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{V}_x} \mathbf{1}(|D^{s \rightarrow r}(\mathbf{x}^{s \rightarrow r}) - D^r(\mathbf{x}^{s \rightarrow r})| < \tau), \quad (9)$$

where $\mathcal{V}_x$ is the set of valid source pixels ($D_x > 0$) and τ is a threshold that accounts for scene-dependent depth variance.

Key-frame selection. To ensure comprehensive scene coverage with minimal redundancy, we extract representative frames from the overlap matrix O using a three-step procedure (see Figure 5):

- i. **Validity filtering:** Retain only frames whose maximum overlap with any other frame exceeds a threshold η : $\mathcal{V}_f = \{i \mid \max_{j \neq i} O_{ij} > \eta\}$. For example, the gray frame in Figure 5(A), with an overlap 0.1, is discarded.
- ii. **Longest cover set:** Among valid frames, select a seed frame S that has the largest number of neighbors with sufficient overlap: $S = \arg \max_{i \in \mathcal{V}_f} |\{j \in \mathcal{V}_f \mid O_{ij} \geq \tau\}|$. In Figure 5(B), the purple frame is selected over the pink one as it covers three neighbors instead of two.
- iii. **Redundancy pruning:** From this set, keep frame j only if it is not highly redundant with any earlier selected frame: $P = \{j \in S \mid \forall k < j, \max(O_{jk}, O_{kj}) < \rho\}$. For instance, the pink frame is excluded in Figure 5(C) due to strong bidirectional overlap with an earlier frame.

The final keyframe set P removes isolated frames, identifies the largest group of mutually overlapping views, and eliminates redundant selections. As shown in Figure 4, the original clip contains repeated views of both the front and back of the building. Our method selects two representative frames: front (F_3) and back (F_1), as keyframes, and applies Image-to-Clips augmentation to each, resulting in more diverse and informative training clips.

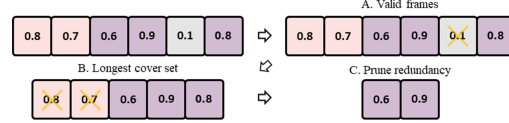


Figure 5: **Keyframe selection.** Colors represent overlapping groups; numbers indicate pairwise overlap scores O_{ij} . We discard low-overlap frames, keep the highest-coverage group, and remove redundant ones to form the final keyframes.

Plug-and-play augmentation. Our Clips-to-

Clips is modular and easily integrates into most modern 3D reconstruction frameworks. It accepts standard video clips and outputs augmented, geometry-aware training samples. The key-frame selection process is internal and does not require altering the original data loading or sampling logic.

4 Experiments

4.1 Setup

Datasets and metrics. We train on a blended corpus comprising ScanNet-v2 [12], ARKitScenes [45], a selected Habitat subset [46], and the in-the-wild/object dataset BlendedMVS [47], totaling approximately **14 million** images. For evaluations in Sections 4.2 and 4.3, we draw uniform subsamples of varying size to study the scaling behavior of Puzzles. To assess the impact of our augmentation, we evaluate on three unseen datasets: 7Scenes [48], NRGBD [49] and DTU [50] using Accuracy (ACC) and Completion (Comp) metrics from [9]. Predicted dense point maps are compared to back-projected ground-truth depth, excluding invalid and background points.

Baselines. We adopt three representative video-based 3R-series methods, Spann3R [9], SLAM3R [10], and Fast3R [11], as baselines. Since each was originally trained on a distinct dataset, we preserve their published training protocols and architectures, and retrain them on a unified dataset both *with* and *without* our Puzzles data augmentation. As a result, the reported metrics may deviate from those reported in the original papers; our objective is not to replicate prior results, but to investigate how each model responds to changes in data distribution. Using Spann3R as an example, we follow the official training setup and train for 120 epochs on the same dataset with the same 14M training samples. The only change is the application of Puzzles augmentation. Puzzles is a plug-and-play module applied on-the-fly through the dataloader, without requiring any pre-processing or modification of the training pipeline. Training was conducted on eight H100 GPUs for 120 epochs. The total training time was approximately 40 hours with Puzzles, compared to 36 hours without. We

Method	w/ Puzzles	Data	7Scenes				NRGBD				DTU			
			Acc↓		Comp↓		Acc↓		Comp↓		Acc↓		Comp↓	
			Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)
Spann3R [9]	✓	full	0.0388		0.0253		0.0686		0.0315		6.2432		3.1259	
		1/10	0.0389	-0.26	0.0248	+1.98	0.0753	-9.79	0.0341	-8.50	4.9832	+20.18	2.5172	+19.47
		full	0.0330	+14.94	0.0224	+11.46	0.0644	+6.00	0.0291	+7.51	5.0004	+19.90	2.5113	+19.66
Fast3R [11]	✓	full	0.0412		0.0275		0.0735		0.0287		4.2961		2.0681	
		1/10	0.0402	+2.30	0.0272	+1.09	0.0772	-5.11	0.0295	-2.78	3.7174	+13.47	1.8941	+8.41
		full	0.0342	+16.99	0.0239	+13.09	0.0684	+6.94	0.0259	+9.75	3.5912	+16.41	1.7379	+15.96
SLAM3R [10]	✓	full	0.0291		0.0245		0.0481		0.0292		4.3820		2.4754	
		1/10	0.0289	+0.68	0.0237	+3.26	0.0493	-2.49	0.0313	-7.19	3.5980	+17.89	2.0891	+15.60
		full	0.0264	+9.27	0.0218	+11.02	0.0439	+8.73	0.0263	+9.93	3.6497	+16.71	2.0762	+16.12

Table 1: Quantitative comparison on 7Scenes [48], NRGBD [49] and DTU [50]. For each metric we report both the raw value and the relative improvement (Δ) achieved by incorporating Puzzles. All methods are evaluated on long video sequences without bundle adjustment refinement; note that Spann3R operates in online mode.



Figure 6: **Comparison of Clips-to-Clips and Image-to-Clips.** **A.** Object-level reconstruction using 10 input views ($\#Views = 10$), where both methods perform comparably. **B.** Scene-level reconstruction with 75 input views ($\#Views = 75$), where Image-to-Clips exhibits drift and unstable predictions, resulting in the discard of low-confidence outputs.

observed slightly slower convergence when using Puzzles, which is expected due to the increased diversity and complexity of the training data. While longer training could yield further improvements, we use the same configuration across experiments to ensure fair comparison.

Implementation details. To generate N patches from a single image, the first patch is generated randomly. Each subsequent patch is then created to ensure it overlaps with at least one of the previously generated patches, based on IoU calculations. This overlap constraint helps maintain spatial continuity and supports consistency across views. The patch size is determined dynamically, based on the image resolution and the desired number of patches per image. In addition, each newly generated patch is required to overlap with at least one of the previously generated patches, but not necessarily with consecutive frames. This design choice accommodates scenarios with rapid camera motion, where adjacent frames may have little or not overlap.

For Clips-to-Clips, we employ a cut-off threshold $\eta = 0.1$, a minimum visibility threshold $\tau = 0.2$, and a redundancy threshold $\rho = 0.7$. In Image-to-Clips, we constrain the maximum angle of incidence to $\theta_{\text{valid}} = 100^\circ$, and sample rotation angles θ uniformly from $[30^\circ, 90^\circ]$. Additionally, we apply a random affine perturbation to the pointmaps: rotations up to $\pm 45^\circ$, translations up to 20% of the bounding box size, and scaling factors uniformly sampled from $[0.8, 1.0]$. The official source code for our method is available on GitHub: <https://github.com/Jiahao-Ma/puzzles-code>.

4.2 Evaluation

Scene-level reconstruction. On scene-level 7Scenes and NRGBD benchmarks, integrating Puzzles consistently improves accuracy across all 3R-series methods. Fast3R shows the largest gains on 7Scenes with 17.0% reduction in Acc and 13.1% in Comp, while Spann3R and SLAM3R also see notable improvements. On NRGBD, gains are smaller but stable (6 ~ 10%). Notably, all models trained with just 1/10 of the training data match or surpass their full-data baselines on 7Scenes, though not on NRGBD. This discrepancy likely stems from NRGBD’s larger and more complex scenes, which are more prone to drift and demand greater data diversity. These results demonstrate that Puzzles enhances generalization and robustness, especially in large-scale reconstruction, without requiring architecture modifications.

Object-level reconstruction. On the object-level DTU benchmark, Puzzles yields consistently large improvements across all methods. SLAM3R benefits the most, with a 16.71% reduction in accuracy

error and a 16.12% reduction in completion error. Spann3R and Fast3R also improve substantially, each showing gains of 16 $\sim$ 20% in accuracy. Notably, our training data differs from that used in [9–11], as we do not incorporate a dedicated object-level dataset [14]—only a small portion of BlendedMVS is included. Despite this, Puzzles effectively generates diverse and detailed local data, resulting in strong performance gains on DTU.

4.3 Analysis

Camera pose distribution after puzzles. We analyze the difference in camera pose distribution across the dataset used in the main paper.

As shown in Table 2, Puzzles follow symmetric zero-mean augmentation that leads to no obvious changes in mean. The Puzzles augmentation introduces pronounced variance increases across all pose axes. In the original dataset, broader axes (*yaw*, t_x , t_y) exhibit only modest variance gains, whereas previously narrow axes (*pitch*, *roll*, t_z) expand substantially.

After augmentation, as shown in Table 3, most rotation axes fall within the $50^\circ \sim 110^\circ$ range, and translations cluster around 20 $\sim$ 35 m. This yields a more balanced and comprehensive pose distribution, exposing the model to a wider range of viewpoints. The enlarged standard deviations (σ) quantitatively capture the degree to which Puzzles expands the pose space, thereby enhancing generalization to rare viewpoints, improving robustness to atypical camera motions, and ultimately boosting model performance.

Impact of white filling. The Image-to-Clips process inevitably introduces occluded regions due to camera motion. These regions are filled with white color and excluded from supervision during optimization. We explore the impact of the occluded regions. Specifically, we experimented with the inpainting method LAMA [51] to fill the occluded regions, while excluding the inpainted areas from the loss computation. However, as shown in Table 4, our experiments conducted on eight NVIDIA H100 GPUs indicate that inpainting offers no significant performance improvement, while increasing the training time by approximately 32.5%. Moreover, existing inpainting approaches often introduce noticeable artifacts when filling large missing areas, which can contaminate valid image regions. Therefore, we chose to discard this strategy in our final pipeline.

Component effect analysis. As shown in Table 5, We further explore the ablation study to illustrate the impact of each component. The experiments show that Clips-to-Clips (C2C) bring the most significant performance gains, while Image-to-Clips (I2C) with augmentation (w/. Aug.) provides a smaller but still positive improvement. In scene-level reconstruction, I2C with augmentation helps simulate camera motion, allowing the network to capture local details. In contrast, C2C improves robustness and supports large-scale reconstruction by capturing global context.

Image-to-Clips vs. Clips-to-Clips. Image-to-Clips generates dense, posed video-depth sequences but inherently offers only local spatial coverage. Clips-to-Clips generalizes this idea by supplying significantly broader scene-level coverage. As illustrated in Figure 6.A, and the DTU results in

Statistic	roll ($^\circ$)	pitch ($^\circ$)	yaw ($^\circ$)
Rotation μ	-89.6	0.04	-4.7
Statistic	t_x (m)	t_y (m)	t_z (m)
Translation μ	-1.58	-1.39	2.45

Table 2: Mean camera poses (μ). Zero-mean augmentations in Puzzles preserve pose symmetry.

Axis	σ_{orig}	σ_{new}	Increase
Rotation X (roll)	15.9 $^\circ$	54.3 $^\circ$	+242%
Rotation Y (pitch)	5.5 $^\circ$	52.2 $^\circ$	+853%
Rotation Z (yaw)	93.7 $^\circ$	107.2 $^\circ$	+14%
Translation t_x	31.1 m	35.6 m	+14.4%
Translation t_y	30.9 m	35.4 m	+14.6%
Translation t_z	10.2 m	20.1 m	+96.5%

Table 3: Camera-pose standard deviation (σ) before and after augmentation.

Setting	Acc $\downarrow$	Comp $\downarrow$	Time $\downarrow$ [h]
Spann3R (w/o. Inpainting)	0.0330	0.0224	40
Spann3R (w/. Inpainting)	0.0332	0.0221	53
Δ (%)	-0.6	+1.3	+32.5 (+13h)

Table 4: Effect of inpainting: increased training time with negligible accuracy change.

Config.	Components			7Scenes	
	I2C w/o. Aug.	I2C w/. Aug.	C2C	Acc $\downarrow$	Δ (%)
Baseline	✓			0.1278	—
+ Aug.	✓	✓		0.0916	+28.3
+ C2C	✓	✓	✓	0.0330	+64.0

Table 5: Impact of Image-to-Clips (I2C), Clips-to-Clips (C2C), and augmentation (Aug.) components on 7Scenes.

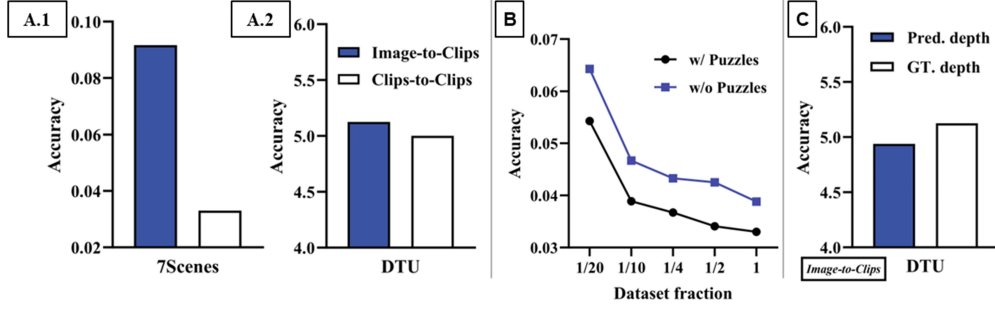


Figure 7: **Ablation study.** A. Comparison on 7Scenes [48] (scene-level) and DTU [50] (object-level). B. Model accuracy with Puzzles at varying data fractions. C. Image-to-Clips single-image augmentation: model accuracy comparing predicted vs. ground-truth depth. All experiments use Spann3R as the baseline, and accuracy is reported using the same metric throughout (lower is better). The results in sub-figure B. are based on Clips-to-Clips while C. corresponds to Image-to-Clips.

Figure 7.A.2, both methods attain comparable accuracy for object-level reconstruction. However, in full scene reconstruction, as shown in Figure 6.B and 7Scenes results in Figure 7.A.1, Clips-to-Clips produce better and more stable results than Image-to-Clips. This is because Clips-to-Clips supplies the network with additional scene-level supervision that Image-to-Clips lacks. This broader coverage mitigates drift and stabilizes the inference, especially when test sequences contain more frames than seen during training.

Model accuracy across increasing dataset fractions. The experiment illustrated in the middle of Figure 7.B, compares Puzzles augmentation (black) to the baseline without augmentation (blue), over data fractions ranging from 1/20 to full. Lower values indicate better performance. Puzzles consistently yields gains at all fractions, with the largest relative gain at 1/20 (over 15% improvement). Even with full data, Puzzles reduces error from 0.0388 to 0.0330 (see Table 1), demonstrating improved generalization. Notably, models trained with Puzzles on just 1/10 of the data match or exceed the performance of full-data baselines. Beyond 1/10, Puzzles consistently outperforms training on the entire dataset without augmentation.

Robustness of Image-to-Clips to predicted vs. ground-truth depth. We evaluate the sensitivity of Image-to-Clips augmentation to the quality of depth input using the DTU benchmark, as shown in Figure 7.C. Two training settings are contrasted: one where augmented clips are paired with predicted depth from an off-the-shelf monocular estimator [15] (solid blue bar), and another using the dataset’s ground-truth depth (white bar). The model trained with predicted depth achieves an accuracy of roughly 4.9, marginally outperforming the 5.1 result with ground-truth depth. This small difference, well within experimental variance, demonstrates that Puzzles is robust to depth quality and remains effective even without precise supervision, enabling the method to scale to large, unlabeled image collections without sacrificing reconstruction quality, reinforcing its “unbounded” scalability.

Trends and challenges. Video-based 3R-series methods show strong potential for dense 3D reconstruction, but they tend to suffer from drift when scaling to large scenes with more views than seen during training. One mitigation strategy [52] combines learned front-end pointmap prediction with a global optimization back-end. A more radical alternative [9, 11, 10] adopts a fully data-driven approach, requiring a scalable architecture and vast scene-level datasets. In contrast, we pursue a data-centric solution: our current augmentation is scene-specific, but future work could explore stitching clips across scenes to synthesize unbounded, large-scale video-depth data.

5 Conclusion

We presented Puzzles, a plug-and-play data-augmentation framework that transforms single images or short clips into high-quality, unbounded video-depth sequences through ordered, overlapping patch synthesis. When integrated into existing 3R-series pipelines, Puzzles consistently boosts reconstruction accuracy. Remarkably, models trained with just 10% of the original data, augmented with Puzzles, can match or exceed the performance of full-data baselines, demonstrating the power of a data-centric solution to scalable 3D reconstruction.

Acknowledgments and Disclosure of Funding

We sincerely thank the anonymous reviewers for their invaluable insights and constructive feedback, which have greatly contributed to improving our work.

This work is supported by the CSIRO Data61 PhD Scholarship.

References

- [1] Carlos Campos, Richard Elvira, Juan J Gómez Rodríguez, José MM Montiel, and Juan D Tardós. Orb-slam3: An accurate open-source library for visual, visual-inertial, and multimap slam. *IEEE transactions on robotics*, 37(6):1874–1890, 2021.
- [2] Jakob Engel, Thomas Schöps, and Daniel Cremers. Lsd-slam: Large-scale direct monocular slam. In *European conference on computer vision*, pages 834–849. Springer, 2014.
- [3] Georg Klein and David Murray. Parallel tracking and mapping on a camera phone. In *2009 8th IEEE International Symposium on Mixed and Augmented Reality*, pages 83–86. IEEE, 2009.
- [4] Johannes L Schonberger and Jan-Michael Frahm. Structure-from-motion revisited. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 4104–4113, 2016.
- [5] Silvano Galliani, Katrin Lasinger, and Konrad Schindler. Massively parallel multiview stereopsis by surface normal diffusion. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*, pages 873–881, 2015.
- [6] Yasutaka Furukawa, Carlos Hernández, et al. Multi-view stereo: A tutorial. *Foundations and trends® in Computer Graphics and Vision*, 9(1-2):1–148, 2015.
- [7] Johannes L Schönberger, Enliang Zheng, Jan-Michael Frahm, and Marc Pollefeys. Pixelwise view selection for unstructured multi-view stereo. In *Computer Vision—ECCV 2016: 14th European Conference, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, October 11-14, 2016, Proceedings, Part III 14*, pages 501–518. Springer, 2016.
- [8] Shuzhe Wang, Vincent Leroy, Yohann Cabon, Boris Chidlovskii, and Jerome Revaud. Dust3r: Geometric 3d vision made easy. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 20697–20709, 2024.
- [9] Hengyi Wang and Lourdes Agapito. 3d reconstruction with spatial memory. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.16061*, 2024.
- [10] Yuzheng Liu, Siyan Dong, Shuzhe Wang, Yanchao Yang, Qingnan Fan, and Baoquan Chen. Slam3r: Real-time dense scene reconstruction from monocular rgb videos. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.09401*, 2024.
- [11] Jianing Yang, Alexander Sax, Kevin J Liang, Mikael Henaff, Hao Tang, Ang Cao, Joyce Chai, Franziska Meier, and Matt Feiszli. Fast3r: Towards 3d reconstruction of 1000+ images in one forward pass. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.13928*, 2025.
- [12] Angela Dai, Angel X Chang, Manolis Savva, Maciej Halber, Thomas Funkhouser, and Matthias Nießner. Scannet: Richly-annotated 3d reconstructions of indoor scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 5828–5839, 2017.
- [13] Chandan Yeshwanth, Yueh-Cheng Liu, Matthias Nießner, and Angela Dai. Scannet++: A high-fidelity dataset of 3d indoor scenes. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 12–22, 2023.
- [14] Jeremy Reizenstein, Roman Shapovalov, Philipp Henzler, Luca Sbordone, Patrick Labatut, and David Novotny. Common objects in 3d: Large-scale learning and evaluation of real-life 3d category reconstruction. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision*, pages 10901–10911, 2021.

- [15] Ruicheng Wang, Sicheng Xu, Cassie Dai, Jianfeng Xiang, Yu Deng, Xin Tong, and Jiaolong Yang. Moge: Unlocking accurate monocular geometry estimation for open-domain images with optimal training supervision. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.19115*, 2024.
- [16] Vincent Leroy, Yohann Cabon, and Jérôme Revaud. Grounding image matching in 3d with mast3r. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 71–91. Springer, 2024.
- [17] Brandon Smart, Chuanxia Zheng, Iro Laina, and Victor Adrian Prisacariu. Splatt3r: Zero-shot gaussian splatting from uncalibrated image pairs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.13912*, 2024.
- [18] Botao Ye, Sifei Liu, Haofei Xu, Xueting Li, Marc Pollefeys, Ming-Hsuan Yang, and Songyou Peng. No pose, no problem: Surprisingly simple 3d gaussian splats from sparse unposed images. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.24207*, 2024.
- [19] Jiahao Ma, Miaomiao Liu, David Ahmed-Aristizabal, and Chuong Nguyen. Hashpoint: Accelerated point searching and sampling for neural rendering. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 4462–4472, June 2024.
- [20] Siyan Dong, Shuzhe Wang, Shaohui Liu, Lulu Cai, Qingnan Fan, Juho Kannala, and Yanchao Yang. Reloc3r: Large-scale training of relative camera pose regression for generalizable, fast, and accurate visual localization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.08376*, 2024.
- [21] Xin Fei, Wenzhao Zheng, Yueqi Duan, Wei Zhan, Masayoshi Tomizuka, Kurt Keutzer, and Jiwen Lu. Driv3r: Learning dense 4d reconstruction for autonomous driving. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.06777*, 2024.
- [22] Junyi Zhang, Charles Herrmann, Junhwa Hur, Varun Jampani, Trevor Darrell, Forrester Cole, Deqing Sun, and Ming-Hsuan Yang. Monst3r: A simple approach for estimating geometry in the presence of motion. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.03825*, 2024.
- [23] Jiahao Ma, Jinguang Tong, Shan Wang, Zicheng Duan, and Chuong Nguyen. Voxelized 3d feature aggregation for multiview detection. In *2024 International Conference on Digital Image Computing: Techniques and Applications (DICTA)*, pages 166–173. IEEE, 2024.
- [24] Jiahao Ma, Tianyu Wang, Miaomiao Liu, David Ahmed-Aristizabal, and Chuong Nguyen. Dchm: Depth-consistent human modeling for multiview detection. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pages 7731–7740, October 2025.
- [25] Jiahao Ma, Zicheng Duan, Liang Zheng, and Chuong Nguyen. Multiview detection with cardboard human modeling. In *Proceedings of the Asian Conference on Computer Vision (ACCV)*, pages 870–886, December 2024.
- [26] Qianqian Wang, Yifei Zhang, Aleksander Holynski, Alexei A Efros, and Angjoo Kanazawa. Continuous 3d perception model with persistent state. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.12387*, 2025.
- [27] Jianyuan Wang, Minghao Chen, Nikita Karaev, Andrea Vedaldi, Christian Rupprecht, and David Novotny. Vggt: Visual geometry grounded transformer. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.11651*, 2025.
- [28] Shangzhan Zhang, Jianyuan Wang, Yinghao Xu, Nan Xue, Christian Rupprecht, Xiaowei Zhou, Yujun Shen, and Gordon Wetzstein. Flare: Feed-forward geometry, appearance and camera estimation from uncalibrated sparse views. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.12138*, 2025.
- [29] Zhun Zhong, Liang Zheng, Guoliang Kang, Shaozi Li, and Yi Yang. Random erasing data augmentation. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 34, pages 13001–13008, 2020.
- [30] Krishna Kumar Singh, Hao Yu, Aron Sarmasi, Gautam Pradeep, and Yong Jae Lee. Hide-and-seek: A data augmentation technique for weakly-supervised localization and beyond. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1811.02545*, 2018.
- [31] Pengguang Chen, Shu Liu, Hengshuang Zhao, Xingquan Wang, and Jiaya Jia. Gridmask data augmentation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2001.04086*, 2020.

- [32] Hongyi Zhang, Moustapha Cisse, Yann N Dauphin, and David Lopez-Paz. mixup: Beyond empirical risk minimization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.09412*, 2017.
- [33] Dan Hendrycks, Norman Mu, Ekin D Cubuk, Barret Zoph, Justin Gilmer, and Balaji Lakshminarayanan. Augmix: A simple data processing method to improve robustness and uncertainty. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1912.02781*, 2019.
- [34] Terrance DeVries and Graham W Taylor. Improved regularization of convolutional neural networks with cutout. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1708.04552*, 2017.
- [35] Sangdoo Yun, Dongyoon Han, Seong Joon Oh, Sanghyuk Chun, Junsuk Choe, and Youngjoon Yoo. Cutmix: Regularization strategy to train strong classifiers with localizable features. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision*, pages 6023–6032, 2019.
- [36] Barret Zoph, Ekin D Cubuk, Golnaz Ghiasi, Tsung-Yi Lin, Jonathon Shlens, and Quoc V Le. Learning data augmentation strategies for object detection. In *Computer Vision–ECCV 2020: 16th European Conference, Glasgow, UK, August 23–28, 2020, Proceedings, Part XXVII 16*, pages 566–583. Springer, 2020.
- [37] Viktor Olsson, Wilhelm Tranheden, Juliano Pinto, and Lennart Svensson. Classmix: Segmentation-based data augmentation for semi-supervised learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF winter conference on applications of computer vision*, pages 1369–1378, 2021.
- [38] Siyuan Li, Lei Ke, Martin Danelljan, Luigi Piccinelli, Mattia Segu, Luc Van Gool, and Fisher Yu. Matching anything by segmenting anything. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 18963–18973, 2024.
- [39] Sanghyun Woo, Kwanyong Park, Seoung Wug Oh, In So Kweon, and Joon-Young Lee. Bridging images and videos: A simple learning framework for large vocabulary video object detection. In *European Conference on Computer Vision*, pages 238–258. Springer, 2022.
- [40] Xingyi He, Hao Yu, Sida Peng, Dongli Tan, Zehong Shen, Hujun Bao, and Xiaowei Zhou. Matchanything: Universal cross-modality image matching with large-scale pre-training. In *Arxiv*, 2025.
- [41] MA FISCHLER AND. Random sample consensus: a paradigm for model fitting with applications to image analysis and automated cartography. *Commun. ACM*, 24(6):381–395, 1981.
- [42] Richard Hartley and Andrew Zisserman. *Multiple view geometry in computer vision*. Cambridge university press, 2003.
- [43] Wikipedia contributors. Rodrigues’ rotation formula—Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rodrigues%27_rotation_formula, 2025. Accessed: 2025-05-04.
- [44] Qian-Yi Zhou, Jaesik Park, and Vladlen Koltun. Open3D: A modern library for 3D data processing. *arXiv:1801.09847*, 2018.
- [45] Gilad Baruch, Zhuoyuan Chen, Afshin Dehghan, Tal Dimry, Yuri Feigin, Peter Fu, Thomas Gebauer, Brandon Joffe, Daniel Kurz, Arik Schwartz, et al. Arkitscenes: A diverse real-world dataset for 3d indoor scene understanding using mobile rgb-d data. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2111.08897*, 2021.
- [46] Manolis Savva, Abhishek Kadian, Oleksandr Maksymets, Yili Zhao, Erik Wijmans, Bhavana Jain, Julian Straub, Jia Liu, Vladlen Koltun, Jitendra Malik, et al. Habitat: A platform for embodied ai research. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF international conference on computer vision*, pages 9339–9347, 2019.
- [47] Yao Yao, Zixin Luo, Shiwei Li, Jingyang Zhang, Yufan Ren, Lei Zhou, Tian Fang, and Long Quan. Blendedmvs: A large-scale dataset for generalized multi-view stereo networks. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 1790–1799, 2020.

- [48] Jamie Shotton, Ben Glocker, Christopher Zach, Shahram Izadi, Antonio Criminisi, and Andrew Fitzgibbon. Scene coordinate regression forests for camera relocalization in rgb-d images. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*, pages 2930–2937, 2013.
- [49] Dejan Azinović, Ricardo Martin-Brualla, Dan B Goldman, Matthias Nießner, and Justus Thies. Neural rgb-d surface reconstruction. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pages 6290–6301, 2022.
- [50] Henrik Aanæs, Rasmus Ramsbøl Jensen, George Vogiatzis, Engin Tola, and Anders Bjarholm Dahl. Large-scale data for multiple-view stereopsis. *International Journal of Computer Vision*, 120:153–168, 2016.
- [51] Roman Suvorov, Elizaveta Logacheva, Anton Mashikhin, Anastasia Remizova, Arsenii Ashukha, Aleksei Silvestrov, Naejin Kong, Harshith Goka, Kiwoong Park, and Victor Lempitsky. Resolution-robust large mask inpainting with fourier convolutions. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF winter conference on applications of computer vision*, pages 2149–2159, 2022.
- [52] Riku Murai, Eric Dexheimer, and Andrew J Davison. Mast3r-slam: Real-time dense slam with 3d reconstruction priors. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.12392*, 2024.

NeurIPS Paper Checklist

i. Claims

Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: Yes, we accurately claim our paper's contributions and scope in the abstract and introduction section. These claims are demonstrated in our methodology and experiments sections.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the abstract and introduction do not include the claims made in the paper.
- The abstract and/or introduction should clearly state the claims made, including the contributions made in the paper and important assumptions and limitations. A No or NA answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers.
- The claims made should match theoretical and experimental results, and reflect how much the results can be expected to generalize to other settings.
- It is fine to include aspirational goals as motivation as long as it is clear that these goals are not attained by the paper.

ii. Limitations

Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

Answer: [\[Yes\]](#)

Justification: We include the limitation in the supplementary materials.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper has no limitation while the answer No means that the paper has limitations, but those are not discussed in the paper.
- The authors are encouraged to create a separate "Limitations" section in their paper.
- The paper should point out any strong assumptions and how robust the results are to violations of these assumptions (e.g., independence assumptions, noiseless settings, model well-specification, asymptotic approximations only holding locally). The authors should reflect on how these assumptions might be violated in practice and what the implications would be.
- The authors should reflect on the scope of the claims made, e.g., if the approach was only tested on a few datasets or with a few runs. In general, empirical results often depend on implicit assumptions, which should be articulated.
- The authors should reflect on the factors that influence the performance of the approach. For example, a facial recognition algorithm may perform poorly when image resolution is low or images are taken in low lighting. Or a speech-to-text system might not be used reliably to provide closed captions for online lectures because it fails to handle technical jargon.
- The authors should discuss the computational efficiency of the proposed algorithms and how they scale with dataset size.
- If applicable, the authors should discuss possible limitations of their approach to address problems of privacy and fairness.
- While the authors might fear that complete honesty about limitations might be used by reviewers as grounds for rejection, a worse outcome might be that reviewers discover limitations that aren't acknowledged in the paper. The authors should use their best judgment and recognize that individual actions in favor of transparency play an important role in developing norms that preserve the integrity of the community. Reviewers will be specifically instructed to not penalize honesty concerning limitations.

iii. Theory assumptions and proofs

Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and a complete (and correct) proof?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper does not include theoretical results and only includes experimental results.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include theoretical results.
- All the theorems, formulas, and proofs in the paper should be numbered and cross-referenced.
- All assumptions should be clearly stated or referenced in the statement of any theorems.
- The proofs can either appear in the main paper or the supplemental material, but if they appear in the supplemental material, the authors are encouraged to provide a short proof sketch to provide intuition.
- Inversely, any informal proof provided in the core of the paper should be complemented by formal proofs provided in appendix or supplemental material.
- Theorems and Lemmas that the proof relies upon should be properly referenced.

iv. **Experimental result reproducibility**

Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main experimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We include all the information needed to reproduce the main experimental results in the method section, experiment section, and supplementary material.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- If the paper includes experiments, a No answer to this question will not be perceived well by the reviewers: Making the paper reproducible is important, regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not.
- If the contribution is a dataset and/or model, the authors should describe the steps taken to make their results reproducible or verifiable.
- Depending on the contribution, reproducibility can be accomplished in various ways. For example, if the contribution is a novel architecture, describing the architecture fully might suffice, or if the contribution is a specific model and empirical evaluation, it may be necessary to either make it possible for others to replicate the model with the same dataset, or provide access to the model. In general, releasing code and data is often one good way to accomplish this, but reproducibility can also be provided via detailed instructions for how to replicate the results, access to a hosted model (e.g., in the case of a large language model), releasing of a model checkpoint, or other means that are appropriate to the research performed.
- While NeurIPS does not require releasing code, the conference does require all submissions to provide some reasonable avenue for reproducibility, which may depend on the nature of the contribution. For example
 - (a) If the contribution is primarily a new algorithm, the paper should make it clear how to reproduce that algorithm.
 - (b) If the contribution is primarily a new model architecture, the paper should describe the architecture clearly and fully.
 - (c) If the contribution is a new model (e.g., a large language model), then there should either be a way to access this model for reproducing the results or a way to reproduce the model (e.g., with an open-source dataset or instructions for how to construct the dataset).
 - (d) We recognize that reproducibility may be tricky in some cases, in which case authors are welcome to describe the particular way they provide for reproducibility. In the case of closed-source models, it may be that access to the model is limited in some way (e.g., to registered users), but it should be possible for other researchers to have some path to reproducing or verifying the results.

v. **Open access to data and code**

Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

Answer: [No]

Justification: We will release all data and code after the paper is accepted.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that paper does not include experiments requiring code.
- Please see the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- While we encourage the release of code and data, we understand that this might not be possible, so “No” is an acceptable answer. Papers cannot be rejected simply for not including code, unless this is central to the contribution (e.g., for a new open-source benchmark).
- The instructions should contain the exact command and environment needed to run to reproduce the results. See the NeurIPS code and data submission guidelines (<https://nips.cc/public/guides/CodeSubmissionPolicy>) for more details.
- The authors should provide instructions on data access and preparation, including how to access the raw data, preprocessed data, intermediate data, and generated data, etc.
- The authors should provide scripts to reproduce all experimental results for the new proposed method and baselines. If only a subset of experiments are reproducible, they should state which ones are omitted from the script and why.
- At submission time, to preserve anonymity, the authors should release anonymized versions (if applicable).
- Providing as much information as possible in supplemental material (appended to the paper) is recommended, but including URLs to data and code is permitted.

vi. **Experimental setting/details**

Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We include the experimental details in the main paper and the supplementary material.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The experimental setting should be presented in the core of the paper to a level of detail that is necessary to appreciate the results and make sense of them.
- The full details can be provided either with the code, in appendix, or as supplemental material.

vii. **Experiment statistical significance**

Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

Answer: [No]

Justification: This paper does not report error bars.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The authors should answer "Yes" if the results are accompanied by error bars, confidence intervals, or statistical significance tests, at least for the experiments that support the main claims of the paper.
- The factors of variability that the error bars are capturing should be clearly stated (for example, train/test split, initialization, random drawing of some parameter, or overall run with given experimental conditions).

- The method for calculating the error bars should be explained (closed form formula, call to a library function, bootstrap, etc.)
- The assumptions made should be given (e.g., Normally distributed errors).
- It should be clear whether the error bar is the standard deviation or the standard error of the mean.
- It is OK to report 1-sigma error bars, but one should state it. The authors should preferably report a 2-sigma error bar than state that they have a 96% CI, if the hypothesis of Normality of errors is not verified.
- For asymmetric distributions, the authors should be careful not to show in tables or figures symmetric error bars that would yield results that are out of range (e.g. negative error rates).
- If error bars are reported in tables or plots, The authors should explain in the text how they were calculated and reference the corresponding figures or tables in the text.

viii. **Experiments compute resources**

Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the experiments?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We include the computer resources used for this work in the supplementary material.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not include experiments.
- The paper should indicate the type of compute workers CPU or GPU, internal cluster, or cloud provider, including relevant memory and storage.
- The paper should provide the amount of compute required for each of the individual experimental runs as well as estimate the total compute.
- The paper should disclose whether the full research project required more compute than the experiments reported in the paper (e.g., preliminary or failed experiments that didn't make it into the paper).

ix. **Code of ethics**

Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics <https://neurips.cc/public/EthicsGuidelines>?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: This work conforms with the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the authors have not reviewed the NeurIPS Code of Ethics.
- If the authors answer No, they should explain the special circumstances that require a deviation from the Code of Ethics.
- The authors should make sure to preserve anonymity (e.g., if there is a special consideration due to laws or regulations in their jurisdiction).

x. **Broader impacts**

Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative societal impacts of the work performed?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We provide the trend and potential challenged in the main text.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that there is no societal impact of the work performed.
- If the authors answer NA or No, they should explain why their work has no societal impact or why the paper does not address societal impact.

- Examples of negative societal impacts include potential malicious or unintended uses (e.g., disinformation, generating fake profiles, surveillance), fairness considerations (e.g., deployment of technologies that could make decisions that unfairly impact specific groups), privacy considerations, and security considerations.
- The conference expects that many papers will be foundational research and not tied to particular applications, let alone deployments. However, if there is a direct path to any negative applications, the authors should point it out. For example, it is legitimate to point out that an improvement in the quality of generative models could be used to generate deepfakes for disinformation. On the other hand, it is not needed to point out that a generic algorithm for optimizing neural networks could enable people to train models that generate Deepfakes faster.
- The authors should consider possible harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended and functioning correctly, harms that could arise when the technology is being used as intended but gives incorrect results, and harms following from (intentional or unintentional) misuse of the technology.
- If there are negative societal impacts, the authors could also discuss possible mitigation strategies (e.g., gated release of models, providing defenses in addition to attacks, mechanisms for monitoring misuse, mechanisms to monitor how a system learns from feedback over time, improving the efficiency and accessibility of ML).

xi. Safeguards

Question: Does the paper describe safeguards that have been put in place for responsible release of data or models that have a high risk for misuse (e.g., pretrained language models, image generators, or scraped datasets)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper does not have a high risk for misuse.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper poses no such risks.
- Released models that have a high risk for misuse or dual-use should be released with necessary safeguards to allow for controlled use of the model, for example by requiring that users adhere to usage guidelines or restrictions to access the model or implementing safety filters.
- Datasets that have been scraped from the Internet could pose safety risks. The authors should describe how they avoided releasing unsafe images.
- We recognize that providing effective safeguards is challenging, and many papers do not require this, but we encourage authors to take this into account and make a best faith effort.

xii. Licenses for existing assets

Question: Are the creators or original owners of assets (e.g., code, data, models), used in the paper, properly credited and are the license and terms of use explicitly mentioned and properly respected?

Answer: [Yes]

Justification: We have cited the original owners of all assets that used in this paper properly.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not use existing assets.
- The authors should cite the original paper that produced the code package or dataset.
- The authors should state which version of the asset is used and, if possible, include a URL.
- The name of the license (e.g., CC-BY 4.0) should be included for each asset.
- For scraped data from a particular source (e.g., website), the copyright and terms of service of that source should be provided.
- If assets are released, the license, copyright information, and terms of use in the package should be provided. For popular datasets, paperswithcode.com/datasets has curated licenses for some datasets. Their licensing guide can help determine the license of a dataset.

- For existing datasets that are re-packaged, both the original license and the license of the derived asset (if it has changed) should be provided.
- If this information is not available online, the authors are encouraged to reach out to the asset’s creators.

xiii. **New assets**

Question: Are new assets introduced in the paper well documented and is the documentation provided alongside the assets?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper does not involve crowdsourcing and human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not release new assets.
- Researchers should communicate the details of the dataset/code/model as part of their submissions via structured templates. This includes details about training, license, limitations, etc.
- The paper should discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose asset is used.
- At submission time, remember to anonymize your assets (if applicable). You can either create an anonymized URL or include an anonymized zip file.

xiv. **Crowdsourcing and research with human subjects**

Question: For crowdsourcing experiments and research with human subjects, does the paper include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if applicable, as well as details about compensation (if any)?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: This paper does not involve crowdsourcing and human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Including this information in the supplemental material is fine, but if the main contribution of the paper involves human subjects, then as much detail as possible should be included in the main paper.
- According to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics, workers involved in data collection, curation, or other labor should be paid at least the minimum wage in the country of the data collector.

xv. **Institutional review board (IRB) approvals or equivalent for research with human subjects**

Question: Does the paper describe potential risks incurred by study participants, whether such risks were disclosed to the subjects, and whether Institutional Review Board (IRB) approvals (or an equivalent approval/review based on the requirements of your country or institution) were obtained?

Answer: [NA]

Justification: The paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the paper does not involve crowdsourcing nor research with human subjects.
- Depending on the country in which research is conducted, IRB approval (or equivalent) may be required for any human subjects research. If you obtained IRB approval, you should clearly state this in the paper.
- We recognize that the procedures for this may vary significantly between institutions and locations, and we expect authors to adhere to the NeurIPS Code of Ethics and the guidelines for their institution.
- For initial submissions, do not include any information that would break anonymity (if applicable), such as the institution conducting the review.

xvi. **Declaration of LLM usage**

Question: Does the paper describe the usage of LLMs if it is an important, original, or non-standard component of the core methods in this research? Note that if the LLM is used only for writing, editing, or formatting purposes and does not impact the core methodology, scientific rigorousness, or originality of the research, declaration is not required.

Answer: [NA]

Justification: The LLM only involves the paper writing, editing and formatting.

Guidelines:

- The answer NA means that the core method development in this research does not involve LLMs as any important, original, or non-standard components.
- Please refer to our LLM policy (<https://neurips.cc/Conferences/2025/LLM>) for what should or should not be described.

A Additional Examples of Clips-to-Clips



Figure 8: **Example of Clips-to-Clips.** *Top:* Consecutive frames from the original training clip. *Middle:* Selected Keyframes with corresponding patch selections. *Bottom:* Synthetic video clips generated from keyframes using the Image-to-Clips process.

We present additional examples of the Clips-to-Clips process in Figure 8, as a supplement to Figure 4 in the main text. *Top row:* These are consecutive frames extracted from a raw training video. The sequence exhibits high temporal redundancy, neighboring frames share nearly identical viewpoints and contribute minimal new geometric information. *Middle row:* Keyframe selection. We highlight the patches that maximize scene coverage using black bounding boxes and indices. These selected keyframes ensure continuous, dual-sided visibility of the target structure, capturing the most informative perspectives within the clip. *Bottom row:* Augmented clip via Image-to-Clips. Starting from the selected keyframes, the Image-to-Clips augmentation synthesizes new video sequences with greater baseline shifts, camera rotations, and scale variations. Despite these transformations, inter-frame overlap is preserved, ensuring geometric consistency. The resulting clips are significantly richer in structure and offer more diverse visual cues compared to the original sequence.

B Additional Experiments and Evaluations

B.1 Joint 2D-3D Data Augmentation

In addition to simulating camera motion, we extend the standard PyTorch data augmentation pipeline to operate jointly on images, point clouds, and overlap masks, incorporating both affine and perspective transformations. Specifically, we apply a `RandomAffine` augmentation with rotation angles sampled from the range $[-45^\circ, 45^\circ]$, translations up to 20% of the image dimensions, and scaling factors between 0.8 and 1.0. We also adopt `RandomPerspective` transformation with a distortion scale of 0.1.

To maintain geometric plausibility and prevent excessive warping that could degrade 3D reconstruction quality, the `RandomPerspective` transformation is applied with a low probability. The visual effects of these augmentations are shown in the bottom rows of Figure 8.

Importantly, these 2D augmentations are applied only to paired images and their corresponding point clouds. We do not currently update the associated camera parameters to reflect the applied transformations, an omission that represents a potential direction for future work, particularly for enhancing geometric consistency in training.

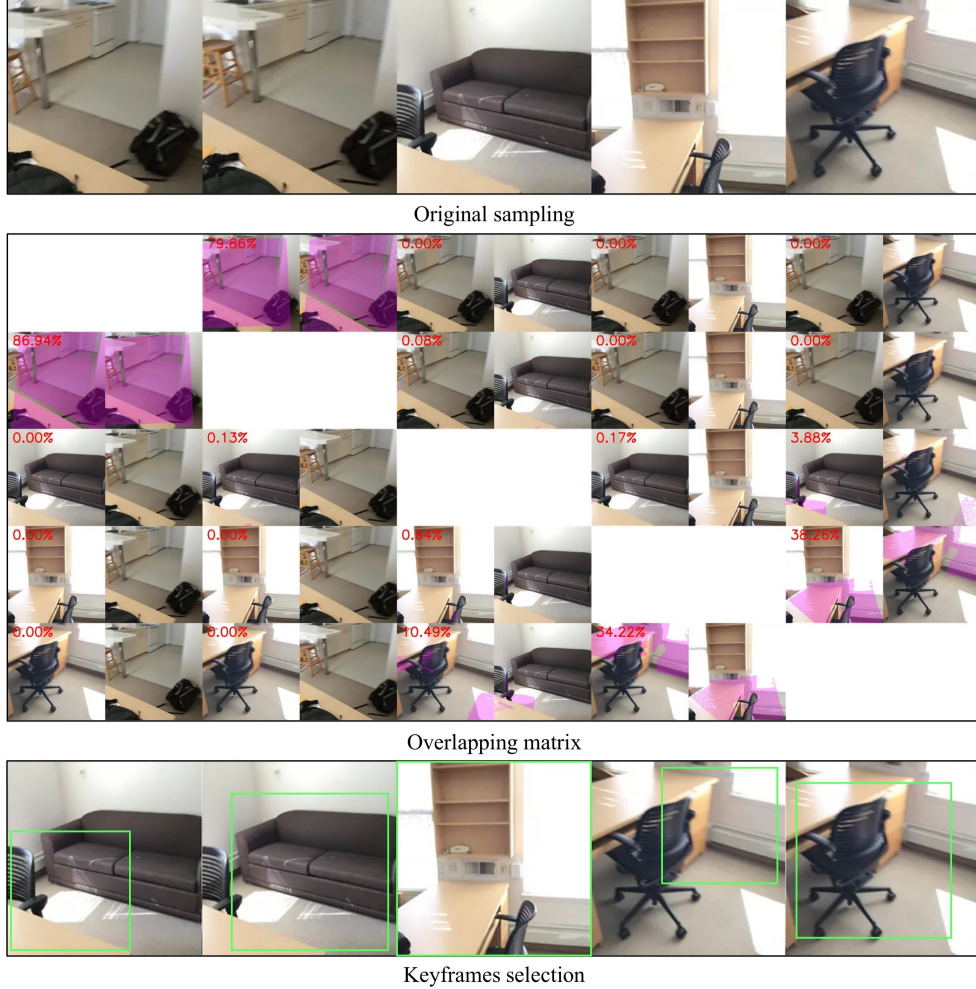


Figure 9: From random sampling to coverage-aware key-frame selection. **Top:** arbitrary sampling yields spatial discontinuities. **Middle:** overlap matrix shows pair-wise coverage percentages. **Bottom:** key-frame selection (green boxes) picks frames that maximise coverage and continuity.

Method	w/ Puzzles	Data	Acc ↓		Comp ↓	
			Value	Δ (%)	Value	Δ (%)
Spann3R	✓	1/10	0.0542	—	0.0325	—
		1/10	0.0389	+28.2	0.0248	+23.7
		full	0.0388	—	0.0253	—
	✓	full	0.0330	+14.9	0.0224	+11.4

Table 6: Quantitative comparison on 7Scenes. For each metric, both the raw value and the relative improvement (Δ) achieved by incorporating Puzzles are reported. The checkmark indicates configurations trained with Puzzles.

B.2 Impact of Puzzles under Limited Data

We have supplemented the evaluation with an experiment where only 10% of the training data is used without Puzzles augmentation. The improvement shown in the Table 6 are based on the comparison under the same data size. Compared to the baseline using 10% of the data, applying Puzzles augmentation significantly improves reconstruction quality. Notably, under this limited data regime, the ACC and Comp errors are reduced by 28.2% and 23.7%, respectively. This demonstrates that Puzzles greatly improves data efficiency. While the original setting relies on large-scale data to achieve diversity, Puzzles maximizes the utility of available data by generating more informative and varied training samples.

B.3 Keyframe Selection for Spatial Continuity

Existing video-based 3R-series methods often sample clips by selecting frames at arbitrary intervals. This random sampling strategy can result in spatially discontinuous sequences, where frames lack sufficient overlap for effective 3D reconstruction.

Figure 9 illustrates how our keyframe selection strategy addresses this issue. In the top row (“original sampling”), five frames are randomly selected from a training clip. However, the first two frames share almost no common field of view with the remaining three, leading to poor geometric continuity. The middle grid shows the pairwise geometric overlap between these frames: red percentages and purple marks indicate high overlap between the first two frames (approximately 80%), near-zero overlap between those and the final three, and moderate overlap among the last three (up to $\sim 38\%$).

Using the overlapping matrix, our method identifies and discards the spatially disconnected first two frames, retaining only the final three as representative keyframes. These are shown in the bottom row. The green rectangles indicate the image regions that will be cropped and warped during the subsequent Image-to-Clips augmentation. This ensures that the generated clip maintains sufficient scene coverage and smooth inter-frame continuity, both critical for learning effective 3D representations.

B.4 Translation and Rotation Augmentation

As shown in Figure 10, camera translation-only augmentation (*TransAug*) involves simple cropping-based patch generation (Figure 2.B, “generate patches”), while *Trans+RotAug* extends this by applying centroid-based camera rotation around each generated patch (the full “Augmentation” pipeline in Figure 2.D). As shown in Figure 10, translation-only augmentation (*TransAug*) involves generating image patches through simple cropping (see main text Figure 2.B, “generate patches”). In contrast, translation-plus-rotation augmentation (*Trans+RotAug*) extends this approach by applying centroid-based camera rotations around each patch, corresponding to the full “Augmentation” pipeline shown in Figure 2.D of main text.

Quantitatively, combining translation and rotation yields the lowest mean reconstruction error of 0.0330, representing an improvement of approximately 35% over translation-only augmentation (*TransAug*, 0.0508). This substantial gain highlights the benefit of jointly perturbing both camera position and orientation. Not only does this increase the diversity of geometric viewpoints in training data, but it also leads to more robust and generalizable 3D reconstruction performance.

B.5 Impact of Puzzles on 3D Reconstruction

Figure 11 presents a comparison of reconstruction results from three methods, SLAM3R, Fast3R, and Spann3R, both before (middle) and after (right) applying Puzzles. In all cases, applying Puzzles leads to a notable improvement in reconstruction quality by enhancing completeness and reducing noise and holes. Specifically, SLAM3R benefits from the filling of boundary gaps, Fast3R recovers

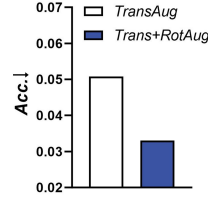


Figure 10: Reconstruction accuracy (lower Acc. is better) for translation-only augmentation (*TransAug*) versus combined translation and rotation augmentation (*Trans+RotAug*).

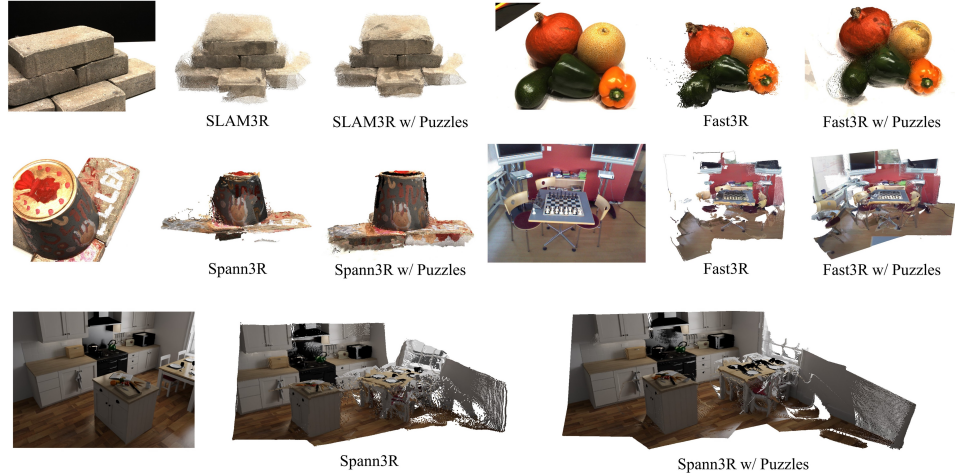


Figure 11: Reconstruction results without (left) and with (right) the proposed Puzzles augmentation.

Setting	Acc ↓	Comp ↓
w/o. Aug.	0.0395	0.0261
Cropping + Jittering + Flipping	0.0388	0.0253
Puzzles	0.0330	0.0224

Table 7: Comparison of different augmentation strategies.

finer details with fewer artifacts, and Spann3R more accurately reconstructs missing structures while producing smoother surfaces. Please refer to the [project website](#) for a detailed visual comparison.

B.6 Comparing Puzzles with Traditional Augmentation

As show in Table 7, we compared the performance of Spann3R on the 7Scenes dataset under three settings: (1) no augmentation (w/o. Aug.), (2) traditional augmentation (cropping + jittering + flipping), and (3) our proposed Puzzles. In the official implementation, traditional augmentation includes cropping, jittering, and flipping, which enhance appearance diversity at the image level. In contrast, Puzzles augments data from a spatial perspective by simulating camera motion and introducing diverse viewpoints. Our results show that Puzzles leads to more effective generalization, outperforming both the no-augmentation and traditional augmentation settings.

C Limitations and Potential Future Work

While Puzzles demonstrates strong performance gains in static scene reconstruction under the standard pinhole camera model, several limitations remain that present exciting avenues for future exploration:

- Support for diverse camera models.** Currently, Puzzles operates under the assumption of a pinhole camera model. Extending support to alternative camera types, such as fisheye, panoramic, or catadioptric lenses, would enable augmentation for a broader range of real-world capture devices and use cases, especially in robotics and immersive applications.
- Dynamic scene augmentation.** The current framework assumes scene rigidity and does not account for object or human motion within a frame. Future work could explore strategies for augmenting dynamic scenes, for example, by learning to synthesize plausible motion trajectories or segmenting and animating scene components independently.
- Cross-scene composition and stitching.** Puzzles presently operates on single scenes or short clips. An extension to stitch patches or sub-clips across multiple distinct scenes could simulate transitions between rooms or outdoor environments, enriching training diversity for large-scale 3D reconstruction tasks. This could also help bridge domain gaps between datasets.

- iv. **Learning-guided augmentation.** Currently, Puzzles applies geometric transformations via hand-designed procedures. Incorporating learning-based augmentation policies, where the system automatically optimizes transformations to maximize reconstruction utility, could further improve performance and generalization.
- v. **Physics-aware realism.** Enhancing the photometric and geometric fidelity of augmentations (*e.g.*, simulating lighting changes, motion blur, or depth-dependent occlusions) could bring synthetic data even closer to real-world conditions, leading to more robust models in challenging environments.

These directions suggest that Puzzles can evolve beyond a data augmentation strategy into a more general framework for synthetic 3D scene generation and learning. We view this work as a foundation toward that broader goal.

D Broader Impacts

The development of Puzzles introduces both promising opportunities and important considerations for the broader computer vision and 3D reconstruction communities.

Positive impacts. By significantly reducing the dependency on large-scale posed video-depth datasets, Puzzles democratizes access to high-quality 3D reconstruction tools. Researchers and practitioners in resource-constrained settings, such as those lacking access to expensive sensors or extensive capture setups, can now generate effective training data from minimal inputs. This may accelerate progress in areas like robotics, AR/VR, digital heritage preservation, and autonomous navigation, particularly in domains where data collection is difficult or expensive (*e.g.*, remote environments, cultural landmarks, or historical archives). The plug-and-play nature of Puzzles also encourages wider adoption across various architectures, facilitating rapid experimentation and innovation in data-efficient 3D learning.

Risks and ethical considerations. As with many advancements in generative data augmentation, the increased realism and diversity of synthetic training samples also raise potential concerns. For example, improved 3D reconstruction capabilities could be misused for surveillance, privacy-invasive applications, or the creation of deepfakes. While Puzzles itself does not introduce adversarial manipulation, it lowers the barrier to creating convincing 3D models from limited imagery, which could be repurposed in harmful ways.

To mitigate these risks, we encourage responsible deployment, including transparency around the use of synthetic data, and advocate for integration with ethical guidelines when applying this method in sensitive domains. We also recommend further exploration of watermarking or provenance tracking techniques for synthetic data generated via Puzzles.

Environmental considerations. By enabling more data-efficient training pipelines, Puzzles may reduce the computational cost and environmental footprint associated with large-scale 3D model training. Training models on only 10% of the original dataset, while achieving similar performance, can substantially cut energy usage, aligning with broader goals of sustainable AI research.